

Figure 2. Up-regulated genes in 10T1/2(A), A54(B) and M1601(C) cells. Total RNA was extracted independently from the micro-array experiments and used to synthesize cDNA. The cDNA was subjected to real-time PCR with specific primers for *Dlk*, *Wnt-5a*, *ST2*, *Crpb1* and *p15* (A), *SCF*, *SDF-1* and adipogenic markers *C/EBP-δ* and *CXCL-1* (B), cardiac troponin T2 (C) and β -actin (D). The copy number was used to compare the level of expression. The mean \pm SD from three independent reactions using the same cDNA is shown.

we confirmed that the levels of transcripts for these genes were elevated in 10T1/2 cells. We also confirmed the up-regulation of CD90 in 10T1/2 cells by flow cytometry (data not shown). Although the function of CD90 in MSC is unclear, it may be useful for distinguishing immature MSC from committed progenitors because CD90 was not detected in the other two cell types. We analyzed the expression of the *Dlk* gene further, because *Dlk* is known to inhibit adipocyte and osteoblast differentiation [16]. Overexpression of human *Dlk* in A54 cells by transduction

with a retroviral vector did not affect adipocyte differentiation (Figure 3). Further experiments are required to determine the function of the genes up-regulated in 10T1/2 cells.

SCF and SDF-1 are up-regulated in pre-adipocyte A54 cells

Previous studies have shown that pre-adipocytes have a greater ability to support hematopoiesis *in vitro* than other kinds of stromal cell components [24,25]. The results of

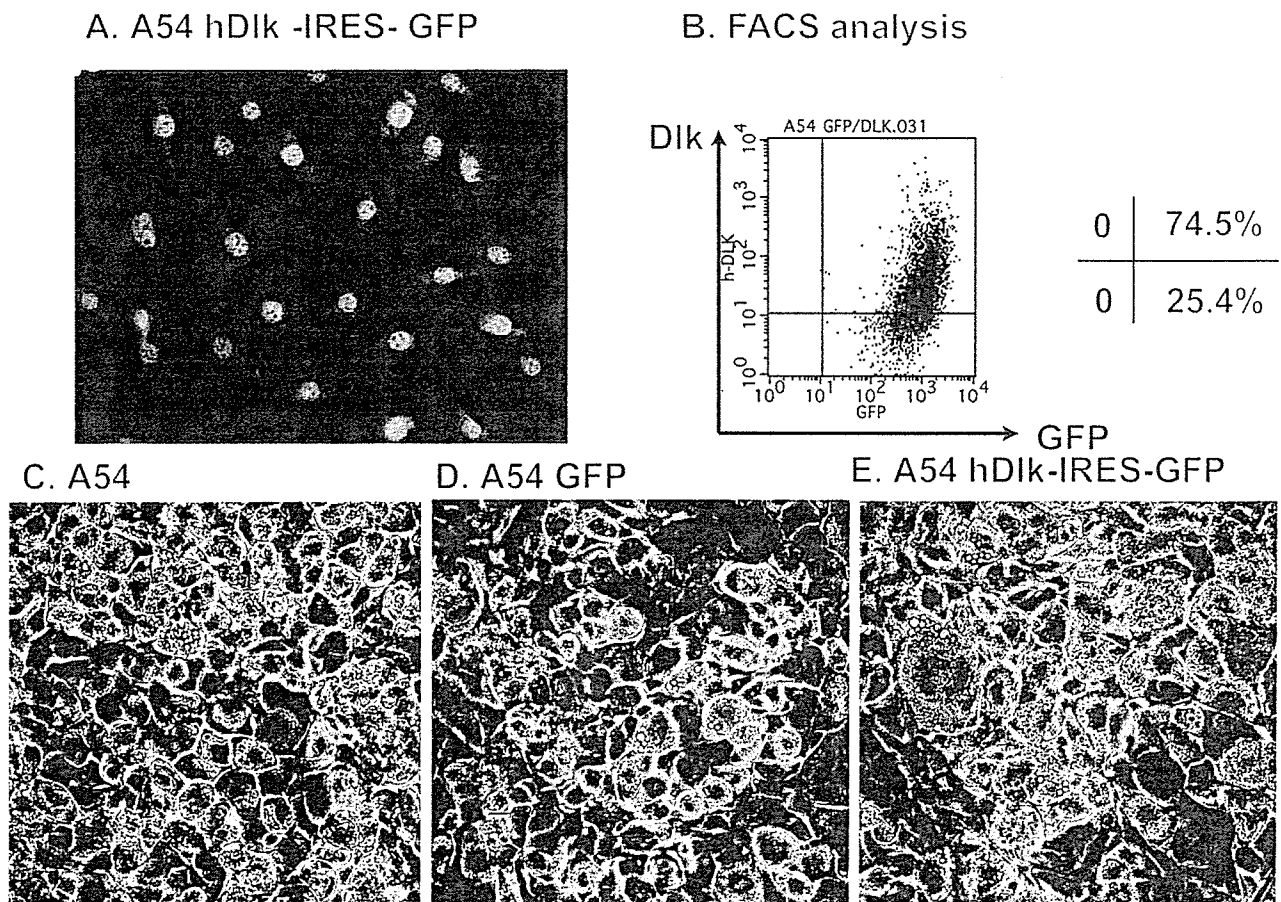


Figure 3. Enforced *Dlk* expression in A54 cells did not inhibit terminal differentiation into adipocyte. (A) GFP expression in A54 cells transfected with *hDlk-IRES-EGFP*. (B) Flow cytometric analysis for expression of *hDlk* in A54 cells transfected with *hDlk-IRES-EGFP*. (C–E) Adipocyte differentiation among parental A54 cells (C), A54 cells transfected with control IRES-EGFP (D) and A54 cells transfected with *hDlk-IRES-EGFP* (E).

our gene expression profiling revealed that critical cytokines for hematopoiesis, such as SCF and SDF-1, are up-regulated in pre-adipocyte A54 cells. In addition, many chemokines, such as CXCL-1 and CCL-7, were also up-regulated (Table 1B). We performed real-time PCR analysis of *SCF*, *SDF-1*, *CEBP- δ* and *CXCL-1*. As shown in Figure 2B, among the three cell lines the expression of these genes was highest in A54 cells. The level of *Ang-1* mRNA in A54 cells was similar to that in OP9 cells (Figure 4A), which are a well-characterized BM stromal cell line. Moreover, of the three cell lines, A54 was the only one with which we could detect the expression of *Ang-1* protein, and its level apparently decreased after adipocyte differentiation (Figure 4B).

The ability of the three cell lines to support formation of a cobblestone appearance

To examine the effects of these three lines on hematopoietic cells, we co-cultured them with a mouse hematopoietic

stem cell fraction. The experimental protocol is shown in Figure 5A. The BM cells were depleted of lineage marker-positive cells using the Auto-MACS magnetic beads system. Thereafter *Sca-1*⁺ cells were selected. The resulting *Lin*(–)*Sca-1*(+) fractions were plated on 10T1/2, A54, or M1601 cells in 12-well dishes. After 6 days of co-culture, a cobblestone appearance was observed only on the A54 cells (Figure 5B–D). These results suggest that, of the three cell lines, only A54 cells have the ability to support hematopoietic cell growth, which agrees with our previous report [12]. We did not observe hematopoietic cell colonies on the layer of the terminally differentiated A54 adipocytes (Figure 5E), suggesting that pre-adipocyte A54 cells lose the ability to support cobblestone formation after differentiation into adipocytes.

To understand the molecular mechanisms underlying this effect, we examined the levels of *SCF*, *SDF-1* and *Ang-1* expression after adipocyte differentiation by real-time

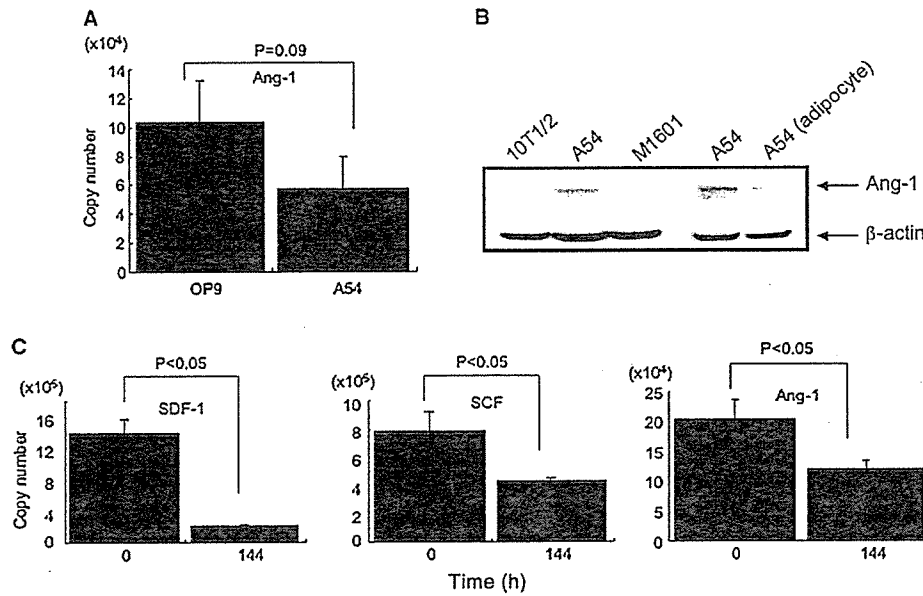


Figure 4. *Ang-1* expression and down-regulation of *SCF*, *SDF-1* and *Ang-1* in *A54* cells after adipocyte differentiation. (A) The level of *Ang-1* mRNA in *A54* cells was similar to that in *OP9* cells, a well-characterized stromal cell line that supports the survival of hematopoietic stem cells. (B) Western blot analysis of *Ang-1* protein expression among *10T1/2*, *A54*, *M1601* and *A54* cells differentiated into adipocytes. (C) The changes in levels of *SCF*, *SDF-1* and *Ang-1* mRNA in *A54* cells before and after adipocyte differentiation were monitored by real-time PCR. The copy number was used to compare the level of expression. The mean \pm SD from three independent reactions using the same cDNA is

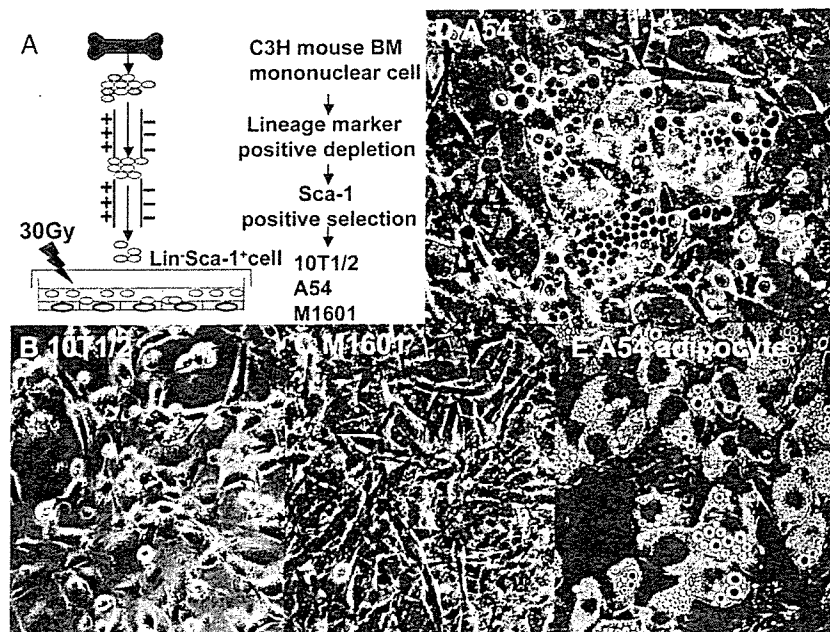


Figure 5. Formation of cobblestone appearance on *10T1/2*, *A54* and *M1601* cells. (A) Experimental procedure. (B–E) *10T1/2*, *A54* and *M1601* were co-cultured with a mouse hematopoietic stem cell fraction for 6 days. The formation of cobblestone appearance was evaluated by phase-contrast microscopy.

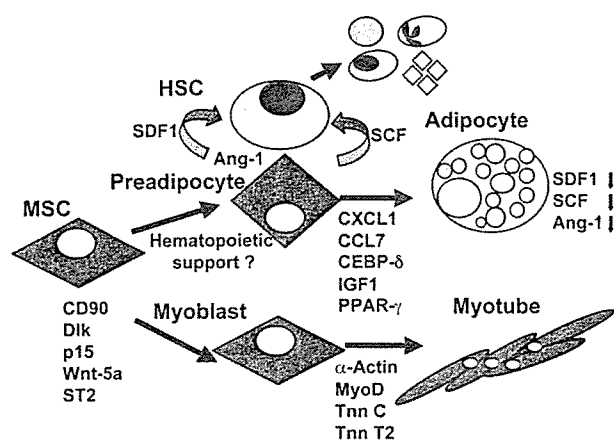


Figure 6. Proposed model for the hierarchy of the BM stromal system. Schematic relationship among MSC, pre-adipocytes and myoblasts and the up-regulated genes in each cell. The expression of *CD90*, *Dlk*, *Wnt-5a* and *ST2* was up-regulated in 10T1/2 cells. The up-regulated genes in A54 (*SCF*, *SDF-1*, and *Ang-1*) were suppressed after adipocyte differentiation. The expression of α -actin, *MyoD*, troponin C and troponin T2 was up-regulated in M1601 cells.

PCR. As shown in Figure 4C, the expression of these genes decreased after the adipocyte differentiation.

Up-regulation of troponin T2 gene in M1601 cells

We confirmed that the expression of *cardiac troponin T2* was up-regulated in M1601 cells (Figure 2C). Figure 2D demonstrates that the level of β -actin expression in each line was almost the same.

Discussion

In the current studies, we used 10T1/2 and two 10T1/2-derived cell lines as models of MSC and progenitor cells. The genes regulating MSC differentiation remain obscure. Because primary MSC may contain heterogeneous progenitors and because the extent of differentiation may vary, it is difficult to use them for high-throughput analysis of gene expression. Therefore, we chose these three cell lines to avoid problems related to the heterogeneity of MSC; all three cell lines had the same genetic background because the A54 and M1601 cells were both derived from 10T1/2 cells.

Up-regulation of *Dlk* in 10T1/2 cells was confirmed by micro-array and RT real-time PCR. Although *Dlk* has been reported to inhibit adipocyte and osteoblast differentiation [16], overexpression of *Dlk* did not affect adipocyte differentiation of A54 cells. This is not surpris-

ing because other factor(s) may also be required for the inhibition of differentiation.

Wnt-5a is a member of the Wnt family, which plays an essential role in regulating proliferation and differentiation [19]. Our GeneChip analysis demonstrated that *Wnt-5a* was expressed in parental 10T1/2 cells and that the gene expression of its receptor, *Frizzled*, was up-regulated in the downstream progenitor cell line, A54. MSC may self-regulate their differentiation or proliferation in the BM through the *Wnt-5a* signaling system. The genes up-regulated in the parental 10T1/2 cells, namely, *Dlk*, *Wnt-5a*, *ST2*, *Crabpl*, *p15* and *CD90*, may be worth investigating further to identify molecules important for maintaining stemness.

SCF and *SDF-1* were exclusively up-regulated in A54 pre-adipocyte cells. This agreed with the ability of these cells to support hematopoietic cell growth. Adipocyte differentiation down-regulated the expression of these genes and reduced the ability of the A54 cells to support hematopoietic cell growth. These results indicate that pre-adipocytes may be one of the committed progenitors that participate in hematopoietic support and that the loss of this ability after terminal adipocyte differentiation may be involved in a fatty change of BM in aging or aplastic anemia. *Ang-1* has been reported to be essential for the self-renewal of hematopoietic stem cells and to be expressed on osteoblasts in the BM niche [14]. Our results suggested that both pre-adipocytes and osteoblasts in the BM are *Ang-1*-producing cells. Pre-adipocytes appear to be related to osteoblasts because they express the mRNA for osteoblast-specific genes such as *osteocalcin* [26]. This suggests that there is a common molecular pathway in osteoblast and pre-adipocyte differentiation. Also, *TAZ* has been reported to be a key regulator of MSC differentiation. This protein enhances the differentiation of MSC into osteoblasts by activating *Runx2* and suppresses the differentiation into adipocytes by inhibiting *PPAR- γ* [10].

We found that M1601 cells express *cardiac muscle-specific* gene, suggesting a possible plasticity of MSC to differentiate into cardiac muscle cells. In this study, we did not analyze the up-regulated genes in M1601 further. Human MSC differentiate into cardiac muscle cells *in vitro* upon treatment with 5-azacytidine and co-culture with primary mouse cardiac muscle cells [27]. A recent study demonstrated that allogenic MSC ameliorated cardiac function in pig myocardial infarction and rat dilated cardiomyopathy

models, suggesting that MSC have the potential to treat myocardial infarction and cardiomyopathy [28,29].

In Figure 6, we show our hypothesis of lineage- and stage-specific gene expression patterns in MSC and committed progenitors. The characterization of the transcriptional profiles should enhance the understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying the differentiation of MSC into progenitors. Furthermore, we hypothesize that each progenitor has a unique function in BM. Our analysis has demonstrated a possible molecular mechanism of hematopoietic support by pre-adipocytes, and we found that pre-adipocyte progenitors may be better than MSC for hematopoietic engraftment in BM transplantation. Finally, because MSC contains heterogeneous progenitors and each committed progenitor has a different function in BM, the three cell lines analyzed here could be useful tools for characterizing the behavior and function of MSC.

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Interferon- γ and NF- κ B mediate nitric oxide production by mesenchymal stromal cells

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Received 31 January 2007

Available online 21 February 2007

Abstract

Mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) have been shown to have an immunosuppressive effect. Previously, we demonstrated that nitric oxide (NO) is one of the immunomodulatory mediators of MSCs. We herein show that primary mouse bone marrow MSCs and three cell lines that mimic MSCs suppress both differentiation and proliferation in Th1 condition, whereas the suppression in Th2 condition is mild. NO production is inversely correlated with T cell proliferation in Th1 and Th2 conditions. NO is highly induced in Th1 and minimally induced in Th2. Moreover, an inhibitor of NO synthase restores both proliferation and interferon- γ (IFN- γ) production in Th1 condition. Furthermore, an anti-IFN- γ antibody strongly inhibits NO production and an inhibitor of NF- κ B reduces the level of induction of inducible NO synthase (iNOS) in MSCs. Taken together, our results suggest that NO plays a significant role in the modification of Th1 and Th2 differentiation by MSCs, and that both IFN- γ and NF- κ B are critical for NO production by MSCs.

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Keywords: Mesenchymal stem cells; Nitric oxide production; Interferon- γ ; NF- κ B; Th1 differentiation; Th2 differentiation; Immunosuppression; 10T1/2; iNOS

Although many reports indicate that mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) suppress T cell proliferation, the molecular mechanisms involved are poorly understood [1–6]. Human MSCs were reported to suppress Th1 differentiation and augment Th2 differentiation [4]. In this study, we investigated whether mouse bone-marrow-derived MSCs have the same effect on Th1 and Th2 differentiation while were also trying to identify the underlying molecular mechanisms of these effects.

Naïve helper T cells primarily differentiate into either Th1 or Th2 cells. Th1 cells produce IFN- γ and interleukin-2 (IL-2) while Th2 cells produce IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. In addition, it appears that a disruption of the balance

between Th1 and Th2 differentiation is associated with the development of immune diseases [7,8].

Previously, two sub-lines of the parental C3H10T1/2 (10T1/2) cell line were established by treatment of that line with 5-azacytidine. These were characterized as a preadipocyte cell line and a myoblast cell line, and were designated A54 and M1601, respectively [9]. A54 and M1601 differentiate into adipocyte and myotube under defined conditions [9]. Other studies suggest that 10T1/2 cells have the same T cell suppressive effect as primary MSCs [10]. In addition, the 10T1/2 cell line has been used as a model of MSCs [11–14]. In the present study, these three cell lines were used as MSC-like cells and demonstrated that their phenotype is similar to that of primary MSCs.

Nitric oxide (NO) is known to suppress T cell proliferation [15–18]. Previously, we demonstrated that NO is one of the major mediators of T cell suppression by mouse MSCs [19]. It is possible that NO also plays a critical role

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Then, cells were stained in FACS buffer (PBS supplemented with 10% FBS) with appropriate concentrations of antibodies for 30 min on ice, washed with FACS buffer, and analyzed with a BD LSR cytometer (BD Biosciences), and the data were analyzed using CELLQUEST software (BD Biosciences).

³H]Thymidine incorporation, immunoblot analysis, detection of inducible NO synthase (iNOS) expression. We performed these assays as described previously [19].

Results

Effects of MSCs on Th1 differentiation

Using primary MSCs and three MSC-like cell lines, the effects of co-cultivation of MSCs on Th1 and Th2 differentiation were examined. Fig. 1A, left panel illustrates that primary MSCs and the A54 cell line strongly suppressed proliferation in Th1 condition. The 10T1/2 and M1601 cells also showed modest suppression. Consistent with this, [³H]thymidine incorporation demonstrated strong suppression of T cell proliferation in the presence of primary MSCs and the A54 cell line and modest suppression in the presence of the 10T1/2 and M1601 cell lines (Supplementary Fig. 1A).

Simultaneously, the production of IFN- γ in the presence of MSCs was examined. In addition to the suppression of T cell proliferation, IFN- γ production is also strongly suppressed in the presence of primary MSCs and the A54 cell line (Fig. 1A, right panel). This suppression was not due to the suppressed number of T cells because the suppression of IFN- γ was also observed with an ELISA, in which an equal number of differentiated cells were used (Supplementary Fig. 1C).

Effects of MSCs on Th2 differentiation

In contrast to Th1 differentiation, a modest suppression of Th2 cell proliferation was observed by a flow cytometric analysis (Fig. 1B, left panel). Specifically, primary MSCs and the A54 cell line showed significantly less suppression compared to the suppression in Th1 condition (Fig. 1B, left panel vs. Fig. 1A, left panel). Consistent with this, [³H]thymidine incorporation assay demonstrated a less suppression of T cell proliferation in Th2 as compared to Th1 in the presence of primary MSCs and A54 cell line (Supplementary Fig. 1B vs. 1A). IL-4 production in the presence of MSCs was suppressed in Th2 condition, as measured by both flow cytometric analysis (Fig. 1B, right panel) and ELISA, in which the same number of differentiated cells were used (Supplementary Fig. 1D).

Nitric oxide production in Th1/Th2 differentiation

Since nitric oxide (NO) is one of the primary mediators of T cell suppression by MSCs [19], it is possible that NO is also involved in suppression of proliferation in Th1 condition. We found a reverse correlation between NO production and T cell proliferation in Th1/Th2 conditions

(Fig. 2A and B), where NO production was highly induced in the presence of MSCs in Th1 but it was induced only minimally in Th2. In particular, primary MSCs and the A54 preadipocyte cell line, which induce strong T cell suppression in Th1 (Fig. 1A), produce high levels of NO in Th1 condition (Fig. 2A). These results suggest that NO also plays a major role in the preferential suppression of Th1 proliferation by MSCs.

Inhibition of NO synthase restores proliferation and differentiation of Th1 cells

To confirm the role of NO, a specific NO synthase inhibitor, NG-monomethyl-L-arginine (L-NMMA) was used. The presence of this inhibitor restored the T cell proliferation and IFN- γ production in Th1 condition (Fig. 3A and B), demonstrating that NO is a mediator of suppression of both T cell growth and IFN- γ production in Th1 condition. However, L-NMMA does not completely restore the T cell proliferation by primary MSCs, suggesting that there are other factors involving in this suppression, as demonstrated in the previous study [19].

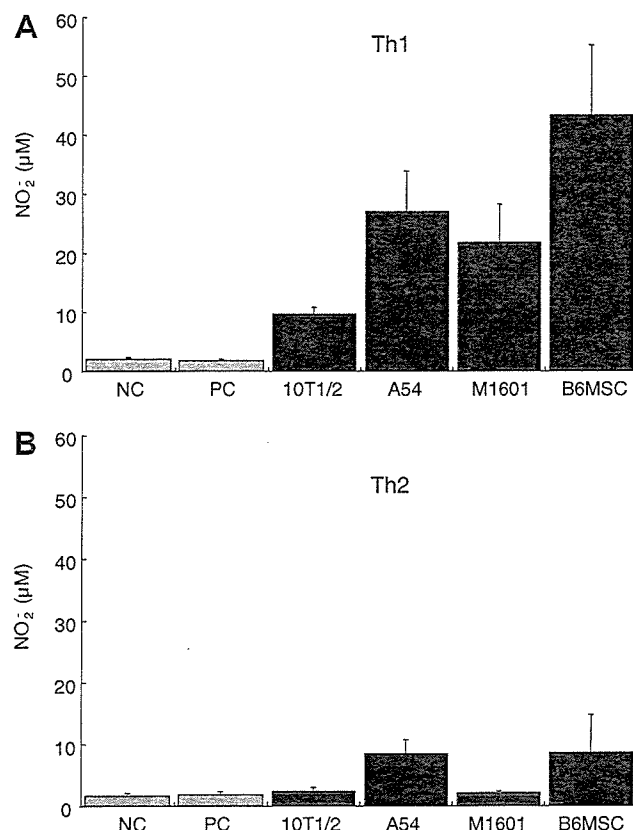


Fig. 2. NO production in Th1 and Th2 conditions in the presence of MSCs. (A) NO production in Th1 condition in the presence of MSCs. (B) NO production in Th2 condition in the presence of MSCs. Splenic CD4⁺ T cells (1×10^6) were stimulated in either Th1 or Th2 condition in the presence of 10T1/2, A54, M1601, and primary MSCs (1×10^5) for 48 h. The concentration of NO₂ in supernatants were determined by the Greiss assay. NC, negative control; CD4⁺ T cells alone; PC, positive control; CD4⁺ T cells with mitogen and without MSCs.

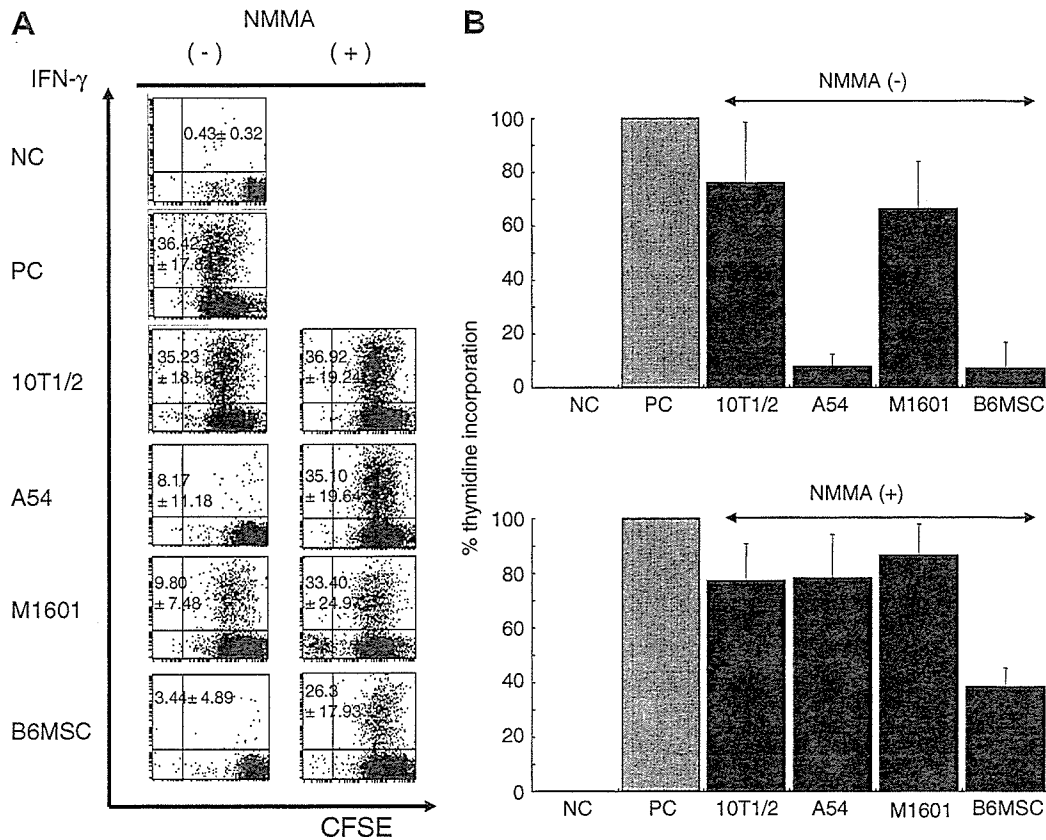


Fig. 3. A specific NO synthase inhibitor, L-NMMA, restores T cell proliferation and IFN- γ production in Th1 condition. (A) A simultaneous flow cytometric analysis of T cell differentiation and proliferation in Th1 condition as described in Fig. 1. CD4⁺ T cells (1×10^6) were stimulated in Th1 condition in the presence of 10T1/2, A54, M1601, and primary MSCs (1×10^5) with or without 1 mM L-NMMA for 48 h. The numbers indicated are mean \pm SD of the percentage of cells in upper right quadrant. (B) [³H]Thymidine incorporation assay in the presence or absence of L-NMMA. CD4⁺ T cells (1×10^5) were stimulated in Th1 condition in the presence of 10T1/2, A54, M1601, and primary MSCs (1×10^4) with or without 1 mM L-NMMA for 48 h. [³H]Thymidine was pulsed for the last 6 h. 10T1/2, A54, M1601, and primary MSCs were pre-irradiated with 30 Gy to prevent [³H]thymidine incorporation into MSCs. The percentage of proliferation is indicated compared to positive control, which is no MSCs. Shown are means \pm SD from three independent experiments. NC, negative control; CD4⁺ T cells alone; PC, positive control; CD4⁺ T cells with mitogen and without MSCs.

IFN- γ and a factor that activates NF- κ B are crucial for NO production from MSCs in the absence of T cells

To determine what inhibits the production of NO in Th2 condition, the two differentiation factors that mediate the Th2 pathway, anti-IFN- γ antibody and IL-4, were investigated. It is possible one or both of these factors is responsible for the minimum production of NO in Th2 condition. As shown in Fig. 4A, anti-IFN- γ antibody clearly inhibits the production of NO, whereas suppression by IL-4 was less evident. These results suggest that IFN- γ is a key regulator of NO production by MSCs.

Interestingly, cell supernatant collected from activated but not non-activated T cells had the ability to induce NO by MSCs (Supplementary Fig. 2A). What signal(s) are required for NO production by MSCs? As shown in Fig. 4A, IFN- γ is critical for NO production; however, in a T cell-free environment, IFN- γ alone does not induce production of NO from primary MSCs (Fig. 4B, both panels). IFN- γ in combination with LPS, but not IL-2, stimulates NO secretion from primary MSCs (Fig. 4B, left

panel and data not shown), suggesting that both the IFN- γ and the signal from Toll-like receptor-4 (TLR4) are required for NO induction by MSCs. Could other TLR ligands substitute for LPS? The addition of flagellin induced NO production in combination with IFN- γ (Fig. 4B, left panel). While, synthetic double strand RNA, poly(I:C), and CpG-oligonucleotide did not induce NO (data not shown). Flagellin is a protein component of bacteria known to induce NO production from macrophages via TLR5 in the presence of either a TLR4 or IFN- γ signal [21,22]. In addition to these factors, IL-1 β and TNF- α induce NO when provided in combination with IFN- γ (Fig. 4B, right panel and Supplementary Fig. 2B). As NF- κ B is a downstream target of the signaling cascades activated by LPS, flagellin, IL-1 β , and TNF- α , we hypothesized that activation of NF- κ B is required for NO induction by MSCs. As shown in Fig. 4C, Bay 11-7085 [20], a specific inhibitor of NF- κ B suppressed production of inducible NO synthase (iNOS) in MSCs, thus suggesting that NF- κ B is involved in NO production by MSCs as well as IFN- γ .

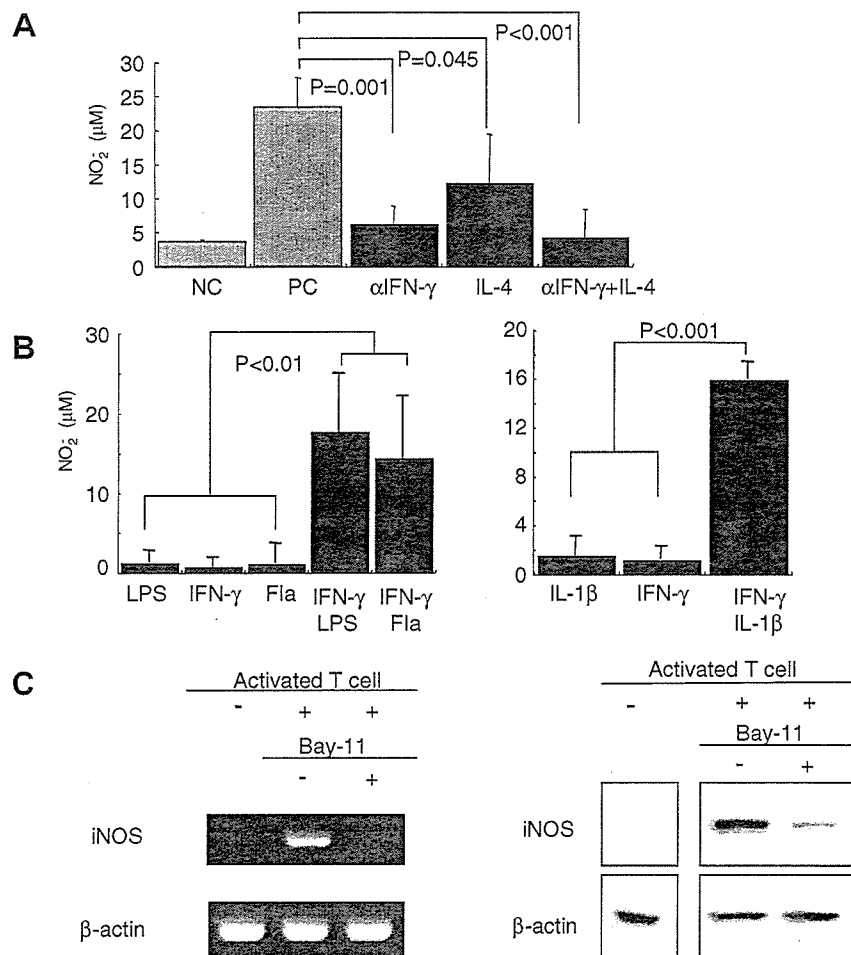


Fig. 4. IFN- γ and NF- κ B are involved in NO production. (A) Anti-IFN- γ antibody inhibits NO production. CD4⁺ T cells (1×10^6) were stimulated with anti-CD3/CD28 beads in the presence of primary MSCs (1×10^5) without any differentiation factors. A neutralizing antibody against IFN- γ (10 μ g/ml), IL-4 (100 ng/ml), and a combination of both were added. NC, negative control; CD4⁺ T cells alone; PC, positive control; CD4⁺ T cells with mitogen. (B) LPS, flagellin, TNF- α , or IL-1 β in a combination with IFN- γ induces NO production from primary MSCs in a T cell-free system. The primary MSCs (1×10^5) were treated with the indicated stimuli without T cells for 48 h and NO concentrations of supernatants were determined by the Greiss assay. (C) A NF- κ B inhibitor, Bay11-7085, suppresses iNOS induction in MSCs. Unfractionated splenocytes (1×10^7) were stimulated with anti-CD3/CD28 beads for 48 h and put onto primary MSCs (1×10^6). After co-cultivation for 6 h, total RNA was harvested for RT-PCR and after 30 h, cell lysates were harvested for immunoblot analysis. In advance of co-cultivation, primary MSCs were pre-treated for 30 min with the irreversible NF- κ B inhibitor, Bay11-7085 (5 μ M), and washed twice with PBS. Just before harvesting, T cells were washed out extensively with PBS.

Discussion

This study demonstrates that mouse primary MSCs strongly suppress T cell proliferation and differentiation in Th1 condition, while the suppression in Th2 condition is weak. Moreover, it provided the first evidence, that NO production can elucidate the differential suppression in Th1/Th2 differentiation. We found a higher NO production in Th1 in comparison to Th2. Furthermore, L-NMMA, a specific inhibitor of NO synthases, restores not only T cell proliferation but also IFN- γ production in Th1 condition. In addition, the treatment with an anti-IFN- γ antibody resulted in a low level of NO production, suggesting that IFN- γ is critical for NO production. While the combination of IFN- γ and a NF- κ B activating factor induces NO in a T cell-free system, and moreover, an inhibitor of NF- κ B diminishes the induction of iNOS in MSCs,

suggesting that NF- κ B is also crucial for NO production by MSCs.

The suppression of IFN- γ production may be due to the suppression of cell proliferation, since differentiation is dependent upon cell division [23]. In fact, Fig. 1A, right panel shows that only proliferating cells can produce IFN- γ . However, MSCs were shown to suppress IFN- γ production, regardless of cell division [2,19].

Primary human MSCs induced a fivefold increase in IL-4 synthesis in Th2 condition [4], however, in this study, primary mouse MSCs in the Th2 pathway suppressed production of IL-4 as measured by intracellular staining and ELISA. The discrepancy may be due to species-specific difference. MSC-like cell lines also showed suppression in IL-4 production.

Our results demonstrate that LPS, flagellin, TNF- α , and IL-1 β can induce NO from MSCs in a combination with

IFN- γ . These ligands are reported to induce NO from monocytes or macrophages in the presence of IFN- γ [24–28]. Monocytes and macrophages have been assumed to be prominent sources of NO. This implies, MSCs have several features in common with monocytes and macrophages. However, a combination of IFN- γ with IL-2 [27], flagellin alone [21], LPS alone [29], and IFN- γ alone [27], which induce NO from macrophages, do not induce NO from MSCs under the conditions we tested here, suggesting that MSCs also have features that make them different from monocytes and macrophages.

What is the factor required for NO induction in combination with IFN- γ ? Cell supernatant from activated T cells induces NO, thus suggesting that activated T cells produce the NO inducer. Neither a soluble TNF- α receptor, a naturally occurring decoy receptor, nor a neutralizing antibody against IL-1 β diminished NO production (data not shown). Our results do not define the factor from T cells but they do suggest that the factor may be a ligand that activates NF- κ B in MSCs, such as LPS, flagellin, TNF- α or IL-1 β .

This study demonstrate that NO is responsible for the preferential suppression of T cell proliferation in Th1 condition by MSCs, and that IFN- γ and NF- κ B are involved in NO production in primary MSCs. This appears to be the first study to elucidate the molecular mechanism for preferential Th1 suppression by MSCs. Therefore, these results are considered to enhance the understanding and investigation in this field.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by grants from the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Labor of Japan and Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Technology of Japan. We also like to thank Dr. Motohiro Matsuura (Jichi Medical University) for providing flagellin, CpG, and poly(I:C).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2007.02.054.

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Nitric oxide plays a critical role in suppression of T-cell proliferation by mesenchymal stem cells

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The molecular mechanisms by which mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) suppress T-cell proliferation are poorly understood, and whether a soluble factor plays a major role remains controversial. Here we demonstrate that the T-cell–receptor complex is not a target for the suppression, suggesting that downstream signals mediate the suppression. We found that Stat5 phosphorylation in T cells is suppressed in the presence of MSCs and that nitric oxide (NO) is involved in the

suppression of Stat5 phosphorylation and T-cell proliferation. The induction of inducible NO synthase (NOS) was readily detected in MSCs but not T cells, and a specific inhibitor of NOS reversed the suppression of Stat5 phosphorylation and T-cell proliferation. This production of NO in the presence of MSCs was mediated by CD4 or CD8 T cells but not by CD19 B cells. Furthermore, inhibitors of prostaglandin synthase or NOS restored the proliferation of T cells, whereas an inhibitor of

indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase and a transforming growth factor- β -neutralizing antibody had no effect. Finally, MSCs from inducible NOS^{-/-} mice had a reduced ability to suppress T-cell proliferation. Taken together, these results suggest that NO produced by MSCs is one of the major mediators of T-cell suppression by MSCs. (*Blood*. 2007;109:228-234)

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Introduction

Because mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) differentiate into osteocytes, chondrocytes, myotubes, and adipocytes,¹⁻³ they are expected to become a source of cells for regenerative therapy. Also, MSCs support hematopoietic stem cell engraftment⁴⁻⁹ and modulate immunologic responses by unknown mechanisms.⁹⁻¹⁴ Here, we investigated the molecular mechanisms by which MSCs suppress T-cell proliferation.

Transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), hepatocyte growth factor, indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO), and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) have been reported to mediate T-cell suppression by MSCs.¹³⁻¹⁵ Specifically, neutralizing antibodies against TGF- β or hepatocyte growth factor,¹³ an inhibitor of IDO,¹⁴ or an inhibitor of prostaglandin production reverse the inhibition of T-cell proliferation by MSCs.¹⁵ In addition, some reports have shown that a soluble factor is the major mediator of suppression,¹³⁻¹⁷ whereas some reports have demonstrated that T-cell–MSC contact is required for this suppression.^{12-14,16,17} In the current study, we sought to resolve these conflicting results by using a mouse bone marrow–derived MSC system.

One candidate soluble factor for T-cell suppression is nitric oxide (NO) because it is known to inhibit T-cell proliferation.¹⁸⁻²⁵ NO is produced by NO synthases (NOSs), of which there are 3 subtypes: inducible NOS (iNOS), endothelial NOS, and neuronal NOS. Like MSCs, it has been known that macrophages suppress T-cell proliferation. This suppression was reported to be mediated by NO inhibition of Stat5 phosphorylation.^{18,19} Also, MSCs were reported to produce NO when they differentiate into chondrocytes.²⁶ We therefore investigated whether MSCs can produce NO

and whether NO is involved in their ability to suppress T-cell proliferation.

Materials and methods

Materials

N-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (L-NAME), indomethacin, and concanavalin A (Con A) were purchased from Wako (Osaka, Japan). Con A was used at 5 μ g/mL. Indomethacin was used at 5 μ M. Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and ionomycin were from Sigma (St Louis, MO) and were used at concentrations of 50 ng/mL and 1 μ g/mL, respectively. Antimouse CD3/CD28 beads (DynaL Biotech ASA, Oslo, Norway) were used at 10 μ L per 10⁶ cells. The transwell system with 1- μ m pores for 12-well dishes was from BD Falcon (Franklin Lakes, NJ). Monoclonal antibodies for CD4, CD8, CD11b, CD25, CD29, CD44, CD45, CD69, Sca-1, B220, Gr-1, and interferon- γ (IFN- γ) were from BD Pharmingen (San Diego, CA). An inhibitor of IDO, 1-methyl-DL-tryptophan (1-MT), was purchased from Sigma. An antibody for TGF- β was purchased from Peprotech (Rocky Hill, NJ). Lipopolysaccharide was from Sigma.

MSCs

MSCs were obtained from wild-type or iNOS^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice. Bone marrow cells were harvested from femurs and tibias by a standard flushing method¹ and then cultivated in a plastic dish in Iscove modified Dulbecco medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Sigma), 2 mM L-glutamine, 0.1 mg/mL streptomycin, and 100 U/mL penicillin G (Invitrogen) or in MF medium (Toyobo, Tokyo, Japan).

All primary MSCs were characterized at least once by flow cytometry and an in vitro differentiation assay. All MSCs were positive for CD29, CD44, and Sca-1, negative for CD11b, Gr-1, and CD45, and able to

Submitted February 13, 2006; accepted August 3, 2006. Prepublished online as *Blood* First Edition Paper, September 19, 2006; DOI 10.1182/blood-2006-02-002246.

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differentiate into adipocytes and osteoblasts (Figure S1, available at the *Blood* website; see the Supplemental Figures link at the top of the online article). We used at least 2 independently isolated batches of MSCs. These cells can be propagated for a long time and retain their surface phenotype and capacity to differentiate for at least 4 months.

Flow cytometric analysis

Cells were incubated with Fc block (BD Pharmingen) to inhibit nonspecific binding of antibodies to Fc receptors. Next, cells were stained in FACS buffer (phosphate-buffered saline [PBS] supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum) with antibodies for 30 minutes on ice, washed with FACS buffer, and analyzed on a BD LSR flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, CA). Collected data were analyzed with CELLQUEST software (Becton Dickinson).

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

ELISA kits for mouse IFN- γ and mouse interleukin-2 (IL-2; BD Pharmingen) were used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Selection of CD4⁺, CD8⁺, and CD19⁺ cells

CD4⁺, CD8⁺, and CD19⁺ cells were selected using mouse CD4, CD8, and CD19 MACS beads and an autoMACS system (Miltenyi Biotech, Auburn, CA). The purity of the cells as determined by flow cytometry with antibodies against CD4, CD8, and B220 was more than 80%.

Thymidine incorporation

Splenocytes were grown in 96-well plates containing RPMI 1640 (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Sigma), 2 mM L-glutamine (Invitrogen), 50 μ M 2-mercaptoethanol (Sigma), 0.1 mg/mL streptomycin, and 100 U/mL penicillin G (Invitrogen). During the cultivation, the cells were pulsed for the last 8 hours of culture with 1 mCi (3.7×10^7 Bq) of [³H]-thymidine (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ). After 48 hours of growth, cells were harvested with a Packard FilterMate harvester (Perkin Elmer Life Sciences, Boston, MA), transferred to a UniFilter plate (Perkin Elmer Life Sciences), and analyzed using a TopCount microplate scintillation counter (Perkin Elmer Life Sciences). In the coculture system, MSCs were γ -irradiated (30 Gy) prior to cultivation to prevent thymidine incorporation. When using the transwell system (BD Falcon), one tenth of the cells were harvested and counted because the system includes 12-well culture dishes, which contain 10-fold more cells than the wells of a 96-well plate.

Western blot analysis

Polyclonal antibodies to phosphorylated Stat5 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA), Stat5 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), cyclin D2 (Cell Signaling Technology), and Kip1 (Cell Signaling Technology) were used for Western blotting. Cells were lysed on ice for 15 minutes with a buffer consisting of 50 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% NP40, Complete proteinase inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), and 1 mM Na₃VO₄. Lysates were centrifuged at 13 000g for 15 minutes, and supernatants were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). Proteins were transferred from the gel to a PVDF membrane (Invitrogen), and Western blotting was performed using enhanced chemiluminescence reagents (Pierce, Rockford, IL) to visualize the immunoreactive proteins.

Assay for NO production

NO is quickly converted to NO₂ and NO₃ in culture medium. Because of the presence of NO₃ in RPMI medium, we measured NO₂ production using a Griess reagent kit (Wako).

Detection of iNOS expression

Total RNA was prepared using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and 1 μ g was reverse-transcribed using a First Strand Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen), and one tenth of the product was subjected to PCR using the following

primers: for iNOS, 5'-GAGATTGGAGTTCGAGACTTC-3' and 5'-TGGCTAGTGCTTCAGACTTC-3'; and for β -actin, 5'-CCATCATGAAGTGTGACGTTG-3' and 5'-GTCCGCTAGAAGCACTTGCG-3'.

Western blotting was performed using a polyclonal antibody for iNOS (BD Transduction Laboratories, Lexington, KY) or a monoclonal antibody for β -actin (Sigma) to confirm equal loading. Immunofluorescence was carried out using the polyclonal iNOS antibody (BD Transduction Laboratories) followed by Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). To distinguish splenocytes from MSCs, cells were simultaneously stained with phycoerythrin-conjugated anti-CD45 monoclonal antibody (BD Pharmingen). Cells were fixed with ProLong Gold antifade reagent (Molecular Probes) and were visualized by confocal microscopy (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan), and images were analyzed with the accompanying confocal image analysis software (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA).

Intracellular staining

Intracellular staining was performed using a BD Cytotfix/Cytoperm kit (BD Pharmingen) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Mice

Wild-type mice (C57BL/6) were purchased from Clea Japan (Tokyo). The iNOS^{-/-} mice (C57BL/6 background) were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME).

Cell lines

RAW264.7 mouse macrophage cells were a generous gift from Dr Matsuura (Jichi Medical University, Tochigi, Japan). HeLa human cervical carcinoma cells were used as negative control for iNOS expression.

Statistical analysis

We used the Student *t* test for statistical analysis. Differences were considered statistically significant at *P* values less than .05.

Results

Characteristics of T-cell suppression by MSCs

Although many reports^{9-17,27} have shown that MSCs suppress T-cell proliferation, the molecular mechanisms and the signaling molecules inhibited by MSCs have not been defined. We therefore investigated the status of activated T cells in the presence of MSCs. The expression of activation markers and the production of IL-2 and IFN- γ were evaluated by flow cytometry, ELISA, and intracellular staining. The expression of the activation markers CD25 and CD69 on CD4 or CD8 T cells was not changed by the presence of MSCs (Figure 1A). In addition, MSCs suppressed the production of IFN- γ but not IL-2 (Figure 1B, upper panel). Also, IFN- γ production was diminished after 24 hours in the presence of MSCs (Figure 1B, lower panel). These findings are in agreement with previous results,²⁷ but they do not explain the strong suppression of T-cell proliferation by MSCs; for example, thymidine incorporation by T cells is reduced more than 10-fold in the presence of MSCs (data not shown).

We next induced T-cell proliferation using a combination of PMA and ionomycin, which act downstream of the T-cell-receptor complex by activating protein kinase C and inducing Ca²⁺ influx, respectively. This proliferation was suppressed by MSCs (Figure 1C), suggesting that the T-cell receptor complex is not a target for the suppression and that MSCs influence signals downstream of protein kinase C and Ca²⁺ influx. As demonstrated in Figure 1C, the proliferation of both purified CD4 and CD8 T cells as well as unfractionated splenocytes was suppressed by MSCs.

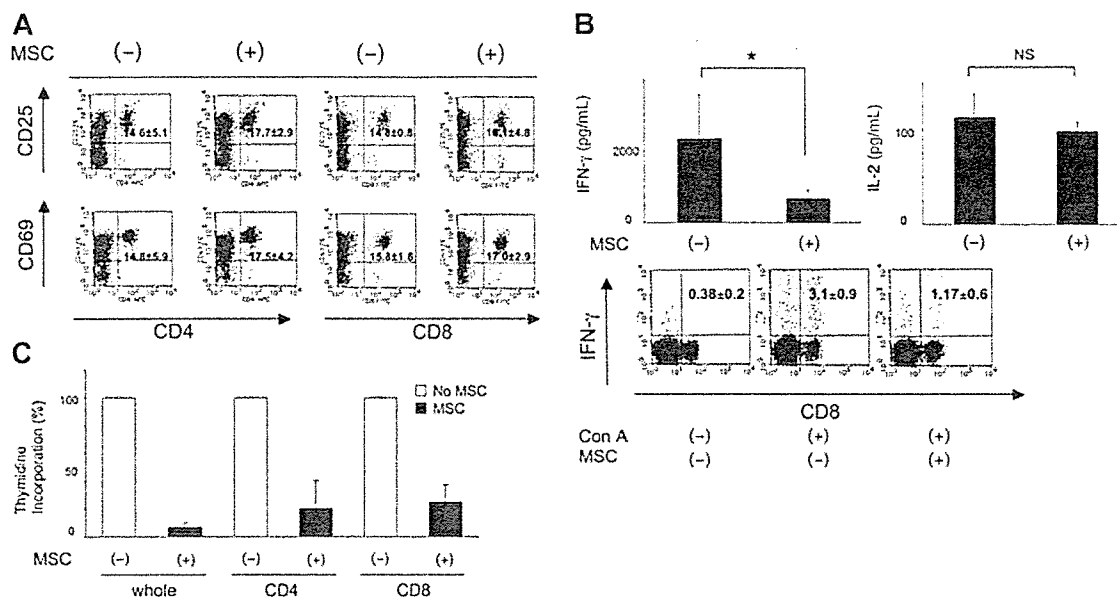


Figure 1. Status of activated T cells in the presence of MSCs. (A) Expression of the T-cell activation markers CD25 and CD69 on CD4 or CD8 cells 24 hours after stimulation of splenocytes (1×10^6 cells) in a 12-well dish with anti-CD3/CD28 beads ($10 \mu\text{L}$) in the presence or absence of 1×10^5 MSCs. The numbers in the top right quadrants indicate the percentage \pm the standard deviation (SD). (B) Top panel, cytokine production in the same condition as in panel A. Concentrations of IL-2 and IFN- γ were determined at 48 hours by ELISA. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. Bottom panel, intracellular staining of IFN- γ at 24 hours. GolgiStop (monensin) was used for the last 8 hours. The values are the mean percentages of CD8/IFN- γ -positive cells \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. (C) MSCs suppress the induction of CD4 $^+$ and CD8 $^+$ T-cell proliferation by PMA and ionomycin. Splenocytes (1×10^6), CD4 $^+$ cells (1×10^5), or CD8 $^+$ cells (1×10^5) were stimulated in the presence or absence of irradiated MSCs (1×10^4) in the wells of a 96-well plate. The incorporation of [^3H]-thymidine is shown relative to that in the absence of MSCs. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$. NS indicates $P > .05$.

Stat5 phosphorylation is inhibited by MSCs

Although T cells from Stat5ab $^{-/-}$ mice do not proliferate upon stimulation with anti-CD3, they up-regulate CD25.²⁸ Because this phenotype is similar to the status of activated T cells in the presence of MSCs (Figure 1A), we hypothesized that they suppress Stat5 phosphorylation. Indeed, as shown in Figure 2, Stat5 phosphorylation was diminished in activated T cells in the presence of MSCs despite equivalent IL-2 production (Figure 1B). The reported changes in cell-cycle-related proteins, including the down-regulation of cyclin D2 and up-regulation of p27 Kip1 in the presence of MSCs,²⁷ were observed less consistently; in most cases, we found that MSCs up-regulated cyclin D2 and down-regulated p27 Kip1 in activated splenocytes compared with freshly isolated splenocytes (data not shown).

Dose dependency and time course of NO production

Macrophages have been reported to suppress T-cell proliferation¹⁹⁻²³ due to the production of NO and its inhibition of Stat5 phosphorylation.^{18,19} This prompted us to examine the production

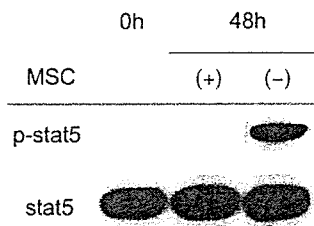


Figure 2. Inhibition of Stat5 phosphorylation in the presence of MSCs. Western blot analysis of Stat5 phosphorylation. Splenocytes (2×10^6) were activated with anti-CD3/CD28 beads in the presence or absence of 1×10^5 MSCs. After 48 hours, splenocytes were collected, lysed, and analyzed by Western blotting. Each lane contains 20 μg protein. Western blotting with anti-Stat5 is shown as a loading control. Shown are representative results from more than 5 experiments.

of NO in our mouse MSC system. We found that MSCs caused a significant and dose-dependent production of NO (Figure 3A). NO could be first detected approximately 12 hours after the activation of T cells in the presence of MSCs. In the transwell system, in which the T cells were separated from the MSCs by a 1- μm -pore membrane, NO production was initially detected approximately 24 hours after the activation of T cells (Figure 3B).

T-cell suppression and NO

Significant amounts of NO were not produced by MSCs cocultured with T cells in the absence of Con A or by Con A-treated MSCs or T cells (Figure 4A). In the presence of a direct interaction between T cells and MSCs, there was a high level of NO production accompanied by a strong suppression of T-cell proliferation (Figure 4A-B). In contrast, both NO production and T-cell suppression were reduced in a transwell system (Figure 4A-B). We further examined whether such a difference is observed using the RAW264.7 macrophage cell line, a well-characterized producer of NO. As with MSCs, T-cell suppression and NO production were inhibited in the transwell system using the RAW264.7 cells (Figure 4B, right side, and data not shown), suggesting that the difference reflects common aspects of T-cell suppression by NO.

T cells but not B cells induce NO

We next asked which cell type causes the NO production. We found that purified CD4 $^+$ and CD8 $^+$ T cells induce similar degrees of T-cell suppression as unfractionated splenocytes (Figure 1C). Therefore, it is not surprising that they also produce NO in the presence of MSCs (Figure 4C). Although MSCs suppress B-cell proliferation ($\sim 50\%$; data not shown), purified CD19 $^+$ B cells did not appear to induce NO production in the presence of MSCs, suggesting that the mechanisms of B-cell and T-cell suppression are different.

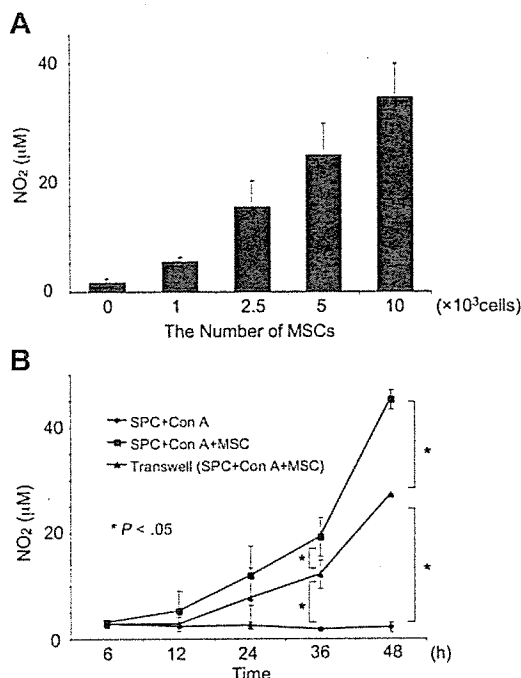


Figure 3. NO production in the presence of MSCs. (A) Dose-dependent effect of MSCs on NO production. Splenocytes (1×10^6) were activated with Con A ($5 \mu\text{g/mL}$) in the presence of the indicated number of MSCs for 48 hours in a 12-well dish. The concentrations of NO were determined by Griess assay. (B) Time course of NO production. MSCs (1×10^5 /well) were treated as in panel A for the indicated amount of time. "Transwell" indicates experiments performed in 12-well dishes in which the T cells were separated from MSCs by a $1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -pore membrane. Values represent the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$.

MSC-T-cell interaction and NO production

There are 2 possible explanations for the difference in NO production in the presence and absence of the transwell system. First, it is possible that there is a difference in the time course of NO production in the 2 systems. In the transwell system, a significant level of NO was typically detected after 24 hours, whereas NO production was detected after 12 to 18 hours in the presence of a direct interaction. Thus, the amount of NO produced in the transwell system was always lower than that in the presence of a direct interaction (Figure 3B). These findings suggest that a direct interaction is critical for the early and efficient production of NO as well as for the strong suppression of T-cell proliferation. A

second possible explanation for the different results obtained in the transwell and direct interaction systems is that, because NO is highly unstable, in the transwell system it can lose its activity before it influences T cells.

MSCs are a producer of NO

If this second explanation is correct, MSCs should be the main producer of NO. Therefore, we examined whether MSCs can produce NO. It is known that there are 3 NO synthases (iNOS, endothelial NOS, and neuronal NOS), and only one of these, iNOS, can be induced by cell stimulation.²⁹ Therefore, we suspected that iNOS is induced in either T cells or MSCs. Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Figure 5A), Western blot analysis (Figure 5B), and immunofluorescence (Figure 5C) detected the induction of iNOS in MSCs cocultured with activated splenocytes but not in MSCs alone, splenocytes alone, or HeLa cells. The immunofluorescence studies showed that iNOS was exclusively expressed by large adherent CD45⁻ cells, which correspond to MSCs (Figure 5C). In addition, iNOS appeared to be expressed throughout the cytoplasm as previously found in Kupffer cells and hepatocytes (Figure 5C).³⁰

Specific inhibitor of NOS restores T-cell proliferation and Stat5 phosphorylation

Next, we investigated the effects of L-NAME, a specific inhibitor of NOS. As expected, L-NAME dose-dependently inhibited the production of NO by MSCs in the presence of activated T cells (Figure S2). Importantly, L-NAME restored T-cell proliferation (Figure 6A, left panel). The effect of L-NAME was dose dependent and more efficient when lower numbers of MSCs were used (Figure 6A, right panel). Using 2.5×10^3 MSCs, 1 mM L-NAME resulted in up to an approximately 80% recovery compared with the positive control (Figure 6A, left panel), suggesting that NO is one of the most important factors for T-cell suppression under the stringent conditions of our assays. On the other hand, even under these conditions, 100% recovery was not achieved, implying that other factors also contribute to the suppression of T-cell proliferation by MSCs.

L-NAME restored not only T-cell proliferation but also Stat5 phosphorylation (Figure 6B), indicating that NO inhibits Stat5 phosphorylation. Because Stat5 is required for T-cell division,²⁸ we suspect that NO first inhibits Stat5 phosphorylation, which then results in arrest of the cell cycle.

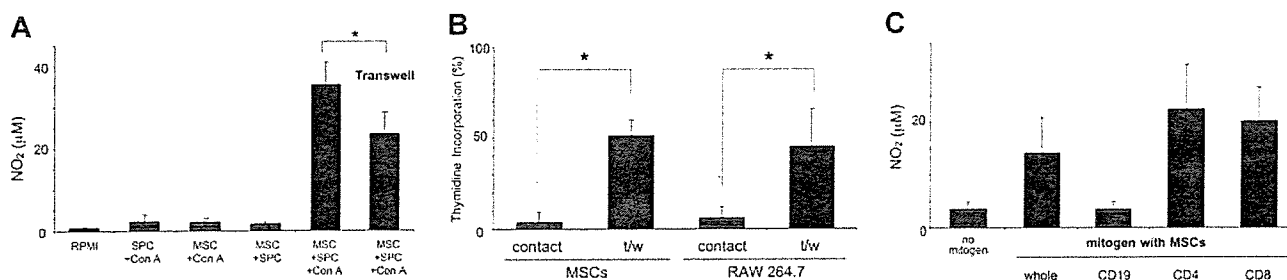


Figure 4. Relationship between NO production and T-cell suppression. (A) Production of NO. Splenocytes (1×10^6) were incubated with or without Con A in the presence or absence of MSCs for 48 hours. "Transwell" indicates experiments performed in 12-well dishes in which the T cells were separated from MSCs by a $1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -pore membrane. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$. (B) T-cell proliferation in the presence or absence of the transwell system. Splenocytes (1×10^6) were activated with Con A in the presence or absence of 1×10^5 MSCs or RAW264.7 cells for 48 hours with or without the transwell. The incorporation of [³H]-thymidine is shown relative to that in the absence of MSCs. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$. (C) T cells but not B cells induce NO production. Purified CD4 or CD8 T cells (1×10^5 ; ~80% purity) induce NO in the presence of MSCs (1×10^4), whereas purified CD19 B cells (1×10^5 ; ~95% purity) do not induce significant NO production. The mitogen for T cells was Con A, and for B cells, it was lipopolysaccharide ($1 \mu\text{g/mL}$). The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$.

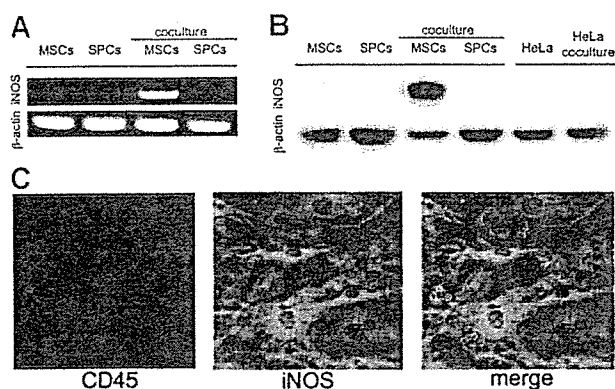


Figure 5. Induction of iNOS in MSCs. Total RNA and cell lysates were collected from MSCs alone, splenocytes alone, MSCs cocultured with activated T cells, or activated splenocytes cocultured with MSCs. MSCs were harvested just after washing out activated T cells with PBS. (A) RT-PCR analysis of iNOS mRNA. β -actin is shown as a control. (B) Western blot analysis of iNOS protein. Each lane contains 20 μ g protein. β -actin is shown as a loading control. HeLa cells were used as negative control because the antibody also reacts with human iNOS protein. (C) Immunofluorescence of iNOS protein. Left panel, confocal immunofluorescent image of CD45 protein. Middle panel, confocal immunofluorescent image of iNOS protein. Right panel, merged confocal immunofluorescent images of CD45 protein and iNOS protein. Splenocytes (1×10^6) were activated with Con A in the presence of 1×10^5 MSCs for 48 hours. Images were visualized using a Nikon Eclipse TE300 microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a 100 \times /1.40 numerical aperture oil objective lens, Nikon CFI Plan APO (Nikon). Images were acquired using Lasersharp software version 2.1 (Bio-Rad).

Other candidates as mediators of suppression by MSCs

Because TGF- β , IDO, and PGE₂ were reported as mediators of T-cell suppression by MSCs,¹³⁻¹⁵ we further compared the effects of L-NAME with inhibitors of each mediator. Indomethacin (inhibitor of PGE₂ production) but not 1-MT (inhibitor of IDO) or an anti-TGF- β -neutralizing antibody restored T-cell proliferation as effectively as L-NAME (Figure 7A); however, the effects of L-NAME and indomethacin were not additive, suggesting that the NO and PGE₂ share signaling pathways leading to T-cell suppression (Figure 7A).

MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice have reduced activity in T-cell suppression

Finally, we used MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice to confirm that NO is produced by MSCs and that NO suppresses T-cell proliferation. MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice were less effective than MSCs from wild-type mice at suppressing T-cell proliferation, suggesting that

NO produced by MSCs is a major mediator of this effect (Figure 7B, left panel). We also confirmed that MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice do not produce NO even in the presence of activated T cells (Figure 7B, right panel).

Discussion

Here, we demonstrate for the first time that the production of NO is involved in the suppression of T cells by MSCs. We also showed that NO inhibits Stat5 phosphorylation. Although NO was already known to suppress T-cell proliferation, NO has not been previously reported to mediate T-cell suppression by MSCs.²⁹ Our hypothesis that NO is produced by MSCs and that it suppresses T-cell proliferation in part through Stat5 inhibition was supported by the following facts: (1) NO was readily detected in the medium in the presence of MSCs; (2) L-NAME restored T-cell proliferation as well as Stat5 phosphorylation; and (3) MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice had markedly reduced abilities to suppress T-cell proliferation. This hypothesis was further confirmed by the finding that iNOS was detected only in MSCs.

Compared with experiments in which cells were in direct contact, experiments performed in transwells showed a lag in NO production, suggesting that T-cell-MSC contact is critical for the early and efficient production of NO and, thus, T-cell suppression. Whether a soluble factor is a main mediator of T-cell suppression by MSCs has been controversial because results from transwell systems have been inconsistent.^{12,14,16-17} Our finding that the transwell reduces but does not abolish T-cell suppression (Figure 4B) may help explain these conflicting reports. Although we could not define the mechanism by which NO production is suppressed in the transwell system, the amount of NO production appears to correspond with the extent of T-cell suppression.

Under stringent conditions, in which a lower number of MSCs was used, the restoration of T-cell proliferation by L-NAME reached up to approximately 80%, suggesting that NO is one of the major mediators; however, 100% restoration was never attained, suggesting that other factor(s) contribute to the suppression. Because TGF- β , IDO, and PGE₂ have been considered as possible mediators of T-cell suppression by MSCs,¹³⁻¹⁵ we examined the effect of specific inhibitors of each. We found that indomethacin (inhibitor of PGE₂ production) restores T-cell proliferation as previously reported¹⁵ but that neither 1-MT (inhibitor of IDO) nor the TGF- β antibody had an effect. Also, the effects of indomethacin

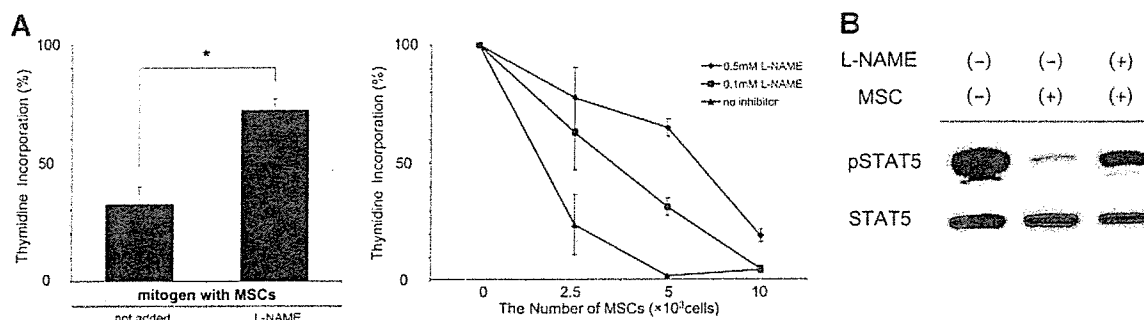


Figure 6. A specific inhibitor of NOS restores T-cell proliferation and Stat5 phosphorylation. (A) Effect of L-NAME on thymidine incorporation. Top panel, splenocytes (1×10^6) were activated with Con A in the presence or absence of 2.5×10^3 irradiated MSCs and in the presence or absence of 1 mM L-NAME. The incorporation of [³H]-thymidine is shown relative to that in the absence of MSCs. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$. Bottom panel, dose-dependent restoration of T-cell proliferation by L-NAME. Splenocytes (1×10^6) were activated with Con A in the presence of the indicated number of irradiated MSCs for 48 hours. The concentrations of L-NAME are shown. Shown is a typical result of 3 independent experiments. (B) L-NAME restores Stat5 phosphorylation. Splenocytes (2×10^6) were activated with anti-CD3/CD28 beads in the presence or absence of 0.5×10^6 to 1×10^6 MSCs for 48 hours and in the presence or absence of 1 mM L-NAME. Western blotting for phosphorylated and total Stat5 was performed as described in Figure 2. Shown is a representative result from 5 independent experiments.

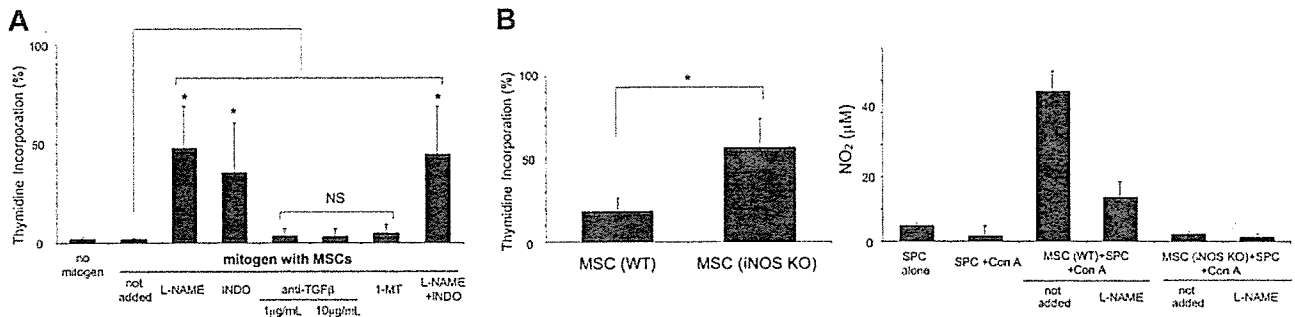


Figure 7. Effect of inhibitors and T-cell suppression by MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice. (A) L-NAME and indomethacin (INDO) restored T-cell proliferation, but TGF- β antibody and 1-MT had no effect. Splenocytes (1×10^5) were activated with Con A in the presence or absence of irradiated MSCs (2.5×10^3), 1 mM L-NAME, 5 μ M indomethacin,¹⁴ 1 μ g/mL or 10 μ g/mL TGF- β antibody, and 1 mM 1-MT for 48 hours. The incorporation of [³H]-thymidine is shown relative to that in the absence of MSCs. Shown is the mean \pm SD of 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$. NS indicates $P > .05$. (B) MSCs from iNOS^{-/-} mice have a reduced ability to inhibit T-cell proliferation. Splenocytes (1×10^5) were activated with Con A in the presence or absence of MSCs (2.5×10^3) from either wild-type or iNOS^{-/-} mice. Left panel, incorporation of [³H]-thymidine relative to that in the absence of MSCs. Right panel, production of NO. The values are the means \pm SD from 3 independent experiments. * $P < .05$.

were not additive with those of L-NAME. These results, combined with previous reports,^{31,32} suggest that NO acts upstream of PGE₂. Furthermore, our results imply that NO may be the central mediator of T-cell proliferation.

Under our standard conditions (1:10 ratio of MSCs to splenocytes), 1 mM L-NAME restored T-cell proliferation to approximately 25%. Similarly, 5 μ M indomethacin also produced an approximately 25% recovery (data not shown). These results suggest that the restoration by L-NAME or indomethacin is not specific to the more stringent conditions (1:40 ratio of MSCs to splenocytes).

Although most of the results from our mouse MSC system are consistent with previous reports,^{12,15,27} we did not find a clear correlation between T-cell suppression and the up-regulation of Kipl or the down-regulation of cyclin D2. Instead, our results suggest that the inhibition of Stat5 phosphorylation is more important for T-cell suppression, at least under the conditions of our experiments. In the conditions studied here, after coculture with MSCs, T cells could respond to a second mitogenic stimulation (data not shown), whereas they could not respond to a second stimulation in a previous report,²⁷ suggesting that the status of T cells in our experiments is different than that in the previous report.

Our results provide new insight into how MSCs modulate immune function. Although it is known that the NO-Stat5 pathway is important for T-cell suppression by macrophages, this is the first report demonstrating that the NO-Stat5 pathway is also critical for T-cell suppression by MSCs. The physiologic role of NO produced by MSCs is unknown, and we are currently investigating the possibility that MSCs in bone marrow protect hematopoietic stem cells from T-cell-mediated destruction by inhibiting T-cell proliferation.

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Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Dr Hitoshi Endo (Jichi Medical University) for technical assistance with immunofluorescence microscopy, Dr David Munn (MCG Immunotherapy Center, Medical College of Georgia, Augusta) for technical advice with dissolving 1-MT, and Dr Motohiro Matsuura (Jichi Medical University) for providing the RAW264.7 macrophage cell line.

This work was supported in part by grants from the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Labor of Japan and Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Technology of Japan.

Authorship

Contribution: K.S. performed the research and analyzed data; K. Ozaki designed the research and wrote the paper; K.H. performed Western blotting; I.O. carried out experiments regarding PMA plus ionomycin; T.N. provided technical advice; A.M. and K.M. provided some reagents and analyzed data; and K. Ozawa organized the research project.

Conflict-of-interest disclosure: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Resistin induces insulin resistance in pancreatic islets to impair glucose-induced insulin release

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Received 8 December 2006

Available online 27 December 2006

Abstract

An adipokine resistin, a small cysteine-rich protein, is one of the major risk factors of insulin resistance. In the present study, transiently resistin-expressing mice using adenovirus method showed an impaired glucose tolerance due to insulin resistance. We found that resistin-expressing mice exhibited impaired insulin secretory response to glucose. In addition, *in vitro* treatment with resistin for 1 day induced insulin resistance in pancreatic islets and impaired glucose-stimulated insulin secretion by elevating insulin release at basal glucose (2.8 mM) and suppressing insulin release at stimulatory glucose (8.3 mM). In addition, resistin inhibited insulin-induced phosphorylation of Akt in islets as well as other insulin target organs. Furthermore, resistin induced SOCS-3 expression in β -cells. In conclusion, resistin induces insulin resistance in islet β -cells at least partly via induction of SOCS-3 expression and reduction of Akt phosphorylation and impairs glucose-induced insulin secretion.

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Keywords: Insulin; Resistin; Pancreatic β -cell; Obesity; Adipokine

Insulin resistance is strongly linked to central obesity [1]. Short-termly, overfeeding rapidly leads to impaired insulin action first in the liver and then other peripheral tissues in humans and animals. Long-termly, adipocytes can influence the whole-body insulin sensitivity through the secretion of adipokines, which exert autocrine, paracrine, and/or endocrine effects on insulin signaling and on energy and intermediary metabolism. An adipokine resistin, a small cysteine-rich protein, is one of the major risk factors of insulin resistance in obesity [2]. Resistin could serve as a molecule for the crosstalk between the energy storage organ, adipose tissue, and principal insulin target organs such as the liver, muscle, and fat [3–5]. Until now, almost all of model animals of insulin resistance exhibit over-weight and fat hypertrophy. Hence, the influence of insulin resistance and that of obesity on the systemic metabolism cannot be separated in most studies. It was reported that infusion of resistin rapidly

induces insulin resistance [6]. We therefore aimed to produce a new model of insulin resistance without obesity by transiently overexpressing resistin. In the present study, we transiently overexpressed resistin in male ICR mice by using an adenovirus and examined its effect on insulin secretion and glucose metabolism in this non-obese model. Furthermore, by using the model we explored possible (patho)physiological roles of resistin in insulin secretion that are largely unknown. We found that elevated levels of circulating resistin impaired glucose-induced insulin secretion while elevating basal insulin release, which could be due to induction of insulin resistance in islets.

Materials and methods

Animals. Adult male ICR mice 8-weeks-old and weighing ~35 g were purchased from Japan Charles River (Yokohama, Japan) and maintained at a constant temperature, humidity, and light cycle with food and water *ad libitum*. The animal protocols were approved by the Jichi Medical School Institute of Animal Care and Use Committee and were in accord with the Japanese Physiological Society's guidelines for animal care.

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